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VOLUME XXVI, No. 22

MONDAY, APRIL 10, 1933

WHOLE No. 712

# The Twenty-Sixth Annual Meeting

# The Classical Association of the Atlantic States

will be held on

Friday Afternoon and Evening, April 28 Saturday Morning and Afternoon, April 29

91

Barnard College, Columbia University

There will be a

SUBSCRIPTION DINNER AT 7 P. M. APRIL 28

and a

SUBSCRIPTION LUNCHEON AT 12:30, APRIL 29

# The Classical Association of the Atlantic States

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#### THE ORIGIN OF THE ACTIO PER FORMULAM

Cicero sometimes toys, or seems to toy, with legal phraseology, quite as a physician toys sometimes with the technical terms for his patients' maladies. Yet relatively little would be known concerning the legal institutions of Rome in the days of the 'Republic', did we not have the writings of Cicero as sources of information. Since the Ciceronian expressions are often rhetorical, they must be checked by reference to other sources, or, if no other sources exist, the Ciceronian expressions must be used with caution and common

But Cicero is not always rhetorical. His close and intricate argument in his speech Pro Caecina1 is evidence not only of sound reasoning, but also of the part Roman lawyers played in juristic interpretation. This great speech portrays the evolution of a law of equity. The praetors, aided by men like Cicero, in directing the legis actiones introduced principles and established precedents which ultimately formed a substantial part of Roman law. To this process the Romans owed the actio per formulam.

The older actio per sacramentum2 was a form of civil procedure still in use in Cicero's time. Through this form of legal procedure the Roman State first assumed responsibility in the settlement of private disputes. The name of this actio was derived either from the fact that a wager was staked by each party in the case, which, when it was forfeited, was used to meet the expenses of public sacrifices, or from the fact that the challenging oaths of the parties constituted the significant feature of the actio, or process3. At all events, the wager itself came to be known as a sacramentum. The bet, made by the plaintiff, was met by the defendant; the money involved in the bet was held by the practor.

The interest of the State in private cases, as represented in the action of the praetor, could not long be confined to supervision of the sacramental procedure. That procedure was very tedious. The process opened with an oral pleading before the practor. Then both disputants seized the object in dispute, or something which represented that object. At the same time each grasped a rod (the rod replaced the original spear, symbol of early trial by combat). This was done to symbolize a fight. Next, the practor, acting for the State in the interests of peace and order, intervened in this dramatization of the primitive method of settling disputes. He gave temporary possession of the object in dispute to one of the parties, but at the same time

required him to pledge sureties to his adversary that, should he lose the case, he would return to his adversary the object and whatever profits should accumulate ad interim from its possession. The praetor then nominated a iudex, with whom the parties arranged for a trial at the end of thirty days.

Both points of law and matters of fact were decided by the iudex, a sort of court-referee. The practor gave to the index the formula according to which the case was to be adjudicated4. The formula was not to be stated in such a way as to prejudge a matter of fact, or to condemn a man before he was tried. Cicero implies this in a burlesque formula (italicized in the quotation given below) by which he intends to illustrate the general dishonesty of Verres<sup>5</sup>: Si vero illud quoque accedit ut praetor in ea verba iudicium det ut vel <'even'> L. Octavius Balbus iudex, homo et iuris et offici peritissimus, non possit aliter indicare, si iudicium sit eius modi, L. Octavius iudex esto. Si paret fundum Capenatem, quo de agitur, ex iure Quiritium P. Servilii esse neque is fundus Q. Catulo restituetur..., non necesse erit L. Octavio iudici cogere P. Servilium Q. Catulo fundum restituere, aut condemnare eum quem non oporteat?.... The appointment of a index was necessary only when matters of fact had to be decided, and the law was to be applied accordingly. In Cicero's time both praetors and court-referees, while trials were in progress, could consult legal advisers. Meanwhile it had become a general principle that the actio per sacramentum should be used only in cases where no other method was allowed by statute.

When the issues in a dispute and the rights involved were obvious, a legis actio was both impossible and unnecessary. In such a case, since the facts were apparent and the magistrate's imperium empowered him to render judgment immediately, the practor simply ordered the party in the wrong to yield to the other's demands, thus settling the case finally. If the issues and the rights involved in a case had never been defined by law, a legis actio was impossible. In such a case, especially if proof of the facts seemed wanting, the praetor ordered one party to yield to the other in order to indicate a tentative judgment and to open the case for trial without the older sacramental preliminaries. The interdicte, in the latter instance a tentative settlement of the case, became a formula on the basis of which the case was to be tried. The magistrate's imperium was applied at the outset to effect the prompt settlement of the controversy; he intervened (inter-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>See e. g. 3, 6, 14, 23, 24, 32.

<sup>2</sup>For this see Cicero, Pro Caecina 54, 97, Pro Murena 25, 26, 27, Pro Milone 74, Ad Atticum 6.1.8, Ad Familiares 7.32.2, De Oratore 1.41, 42, 186, 193, De Natura Deorum 3.74, De Domo 78; Aulus Gellius 20.1.10; Varro, De Lingua Latina 5.280; Gaius 4.15, 16.

<sup>2</sup>Compare J. L. Strachan-Davidson, Problems of the Roman Criminal Law, 1.46-66 (Oxford: At the Clarendon Press, 1912); A. H. J. Greenidge, The Legal Procedure of Cicero's Time, 11, 52-75 (Oxford: At the Clarendon Press, 1901).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>See Cicero, Pro Tullio 38, Pro Quinctio 5, 29, 30, 36, 74, Pro Roscio Comoedo 12, 15, 22, Ad Quintum Fratrem 1.2, 10, In Verrem 2.2, 47, 71, De Oratore 1,167, 173; Sallust, Catilina 33; Dionysius 4, 25; Polybius 6,17,7; Digest 22,6, 2.

<sup>4. 25;</sup> Polybius 6.17.7; Digest 22.6, 2.

An Verrem 2.2, 31.

Cicero, Pro Caecina 45, Pro Tullio 29, Ad Familiares 7.32.1, De Lege Agraria 3.11, De Oratore 1.41; Caesar, De Bello Gallico 1.46.4, 5.22.5; Livy 5.3.8; Gaius 4.139, 141, 159, 164–166. See also note 1,

dixit) in the interests of peace and order. Such intervention, a characteristic of primitive monarchy, was recognized by the Twelve Tables7. Cicero8 says that the practor was frequently occupied for an entire day at a time in issuing interdicts. In many cases, the violation of rights and the justice of the demands of the interdict-questions of fact and of law-had to be investigated in a subsequent trial.

The interdict9 was instrumental in stopping trespasses on public works, in securing the release of witnesses who had been detained, and, most frequently, in protecting the rights of ownership. To a certain extent a case which required an interdict obliged the practor to make his own law, and to be more aggressive in the process of settlement than the litigants themselves, thus preventing such private initiative as appeared in other forms of procedure. In other words, the praetor's activities in connection with an interdict were in marked contrast to his more or less passive supervision of the legis actio. In interdictal cases the practor appeared in the double rôle of legislator and of administrator of the law he himself had laid down. If, after granting the interdict, the practor held that a trial was necessary, he assigned the case to a iudex, or to recuperatores, according to the nature of the dispute. The trial merely produced the facts, in view of which the injunctions of the interdict would be promptly carried out.

Praetors' interdicts crystalized into a type of law, and the iudicia which were held in accordance with them set up precedents which figured in subsequent cases of the same general character. The interdictal procedure, as it appeared in the age of Cicero10, was the outcome of an endeavor to meet frequent emergencies in a society with whose growth the law had not kept pace. A by-product of the interdictal process was a considerable supplement to the praetorian law, that is, out of the interdictal process a Roman law of equity was developed.

The use of the interdictal procedure stimulated the growth of a new process, the actio per formulam, which gradually superseded the archaic actio per sacramentum. The assignment of cases to iudices under the sacramental procedure, and the accompanying instructions concerning the trials furnished the opportunity for the rise of the formulary procedure. Mr. Strachan-Davidson11 states this fact as follows:

.. It was but a slight step forward that the practor, instead of submitting to the judex the question of a 'just' or 'unjust' sacramentum, should define more closely in a written document what were the precise points on which he was to decide, and what effect these decisions were to have on his final verdict of acquittal or condemnation; and here we find ourselves in the 'Formulary system'.

The old process was retained primarily for centumviral trials and in cases of damage caused by a person or persons virtually self-convicted by the evidence. Further, it was employed only in cases where both litigants were Roman citizens.

Therefore, the chief factor in the development of the formulary process was the necessity of trying cases in which foreigners were involved12. Disputes between foreigners, or between citizens and foreigners, could not be adjudicated under the ius civile, for the ius civile applied only to citizens; hence to the settlement of such disputes the practor was required to apply equity. The actio per sacramentum, the interdictal procedure, and the actio per formulam operated side by side, but the simpler formulary process (actio per formulam) gradually supplanted the older and more awkward forms. Finally this change seems to have been recognized by statutory law. Gaius13, with characteristic brevity, explains the matter thus: . . Sed istae omnes legis actiones paulatim in odium venerunt; . . . itaque per legem Aebutiam et duas Iulias sublatae sunt istae legis actiones effectumque est ut per concepta verba, id est per formulas, litigemus.

The actio per formulam was not so tediously formal as the legis actio per sacramentum or the interdictal process. The absence of any rigid law for the formulary procedure left it sufficiently elastic to adjust itself to the demands made upon it14. Moreover, in the course of time, the praetors created a law of equity consistent with the procedure per formulam. After the creation of the office of praetor peregrinus, in 242 B. C., the actio per formulam was the actio normally employed by the praetor peregrinus. Later, however, the praetor urbanus. too, used it, for cases between Roman citizens. Yet the actio per formulam had not by the time of Cicero entirely displaced the older forms.

The main feature of the formulary process was the praetor's formula. Cicero's parody of the formula (quoted above, in the fifth paragraph of the text) may be slightly modified to present a correct formula: . . . L. Octavius iudex esto; si paret fundum Capenatem, quo de agitur, ex iure Quiritium P. Servilii esse, neque is fundus P. Servilio restituetur.... Another of the simpler formulas, used to supply a fiction of heirship in the case of a claim not recognized in the civil law, exemplifies the functions and the advantages of the formulary procedure: ... Si Aulus Agerius Lucio Titio heres esset, tum si pareret Numerium Negidium Aulo Agerio sestertium X milia dare oportere, iudex

<sup>&#</sup>x27;The extant portions of the Twelve Tables may be found in C. G. Bruns. Pontes Juris Romani Antiqui', 1.15-40 (Tübingen, P. Siebeck, 1908). Berger, in an article entitled Tabulae Duodecim, in Pauly-Wissowa, Real-Encyclopädie der Classischen Altertumswissenschaft, Zweite Reite, 4, 1899-1949, presents the latest scholarly interpretation and reconstruction of the Twelve Tables.

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<sup>111.67 (</sup>see note 3, above).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup>For partial agreement with this view see Strachan-Davidson, 1.71 (see note 3, above): W. W. Buckland, A Textbook of Roman Law, 622-625 (Cambridge: At the University Press, 1921); Greenidge, 172 (see note 3, above).

<sup>184.30</sup>  <sup>13</sup>43.9.
 <sup>14</sup>See Cicero, Pro Caecina 40, Pro Roscio Comoedo 24, 35, 55, Pro Tullio 5, 33, Topica 33, De Oratore 1, 237, Partitiones Oratoriae 98, 100; Lex Ursonensis 61, in Bruns, 1, 123 (see note 7, above); Livy, Epitome 19. Compare Strachan-Davidson, 1, 79-84 (see note 3, above).

above).

"See Cicero, Pro Caecina 7, 8, Pro Quinctio 62, 63, Pro Flacco 50,
Pro Cluentio 110, 120, Pro Tullio 8, Pro Roscio Comoedo 42, 45, In
Verrem 2.2.31, 2.4.66, De Inventione 2.58, De Legibus 1.14, De Oratore 2.263, 285; Gaius 4.34-68,

Numerium Negidium Aulo Agerio sestertium X milia condemna; si non paret, absolve16.

This formulary process was free from such preliminary ceremony as characterized the sacramental and interdictal procedures. The parties simply appeared before the practor, in iure, and presented their case, either verbally or in writing. The praetor then produced a written formula which defined the issue and the judgment to be rendered, according as the complaint (intentio) should or should not be upheld in the subsequent trial. The case was assigned to a index, if possible to a index acceptable to both parties. The hearing before the iudex (i. e. the hearing in iudicio) was enlivened by the contest between plaintiff and defendant and their respective patroni.

The trial<sup>17</sup> was public. On an appointed day the parties appeared before the iudex in the Forum. The first act of the iudex seems to have been to take an oath that he would perform faithfully the functions of his office. He then received a general outline of the case, or the formula previously prepared by the practor. The case may then have been further introduced by short speeches of the patroni. If the trial lasted more than one day, a complete outline of the facts was presented again when the hearing was resumed. The speech for the plaintiff came first. The testimony of witnesses seems to have been heard after the speeches of the patroni. When the hearing was finished, the iudex and his advisers went into consultation to decide upon a proper verdict. The judgment was usually delivered in extremely cautious terms. Execution was left to the successful litigant.

The formulary process did not remain as adjustable to every occasion as it was at the outset, for the formulae became stereotyped. The practors developed the practice of publishing annually, at the beginnings of their terms of office, the formulae they would use, at the same time announcing the types of procedure they would follow; and the law eventually required practors to abide by the edicts in which they made such publication and such announcement18. Though this procedure provided speedy justice and contributed to the rise of substantive law, its later mechanical character may be seen in the fact that an error in the demonstratio or in the intentio automatically upset the whole proceeding. Further, the praetor's instructions to the iudex could be so stated as to force a well-intentioned judge to deliver an unjust judgment (see the fifth paragraph of this paper, and note 16, above). The practor, who had originally made both law and procedure in cases for which these did not yet exist, was finally subject to the system which his predecessors had slowly constructed, and his own law-making was correspondingly limited.

The actio per formulam originated under the necessity of administering justice for foreigners sojourning in the city of Rome. Departing from the early actio per sacramentum and following the suggestions of the interdictal process, the praetors gradually adapted the procedure developed at first for cases involving foreigners to cases in which both litigants were citizens. Consequently, in these and other types of legal action the technicalities of Roman law and procedure became extremely complicated.

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# Η Πρώτη Στέγη IN HOUSES OF SEVERAL STORIES

Scholars have been, with one exception, unanimous in holding that the words ή πρώτη στέγη in Greco-Roman antiquity2 signified, in houses of more than one story, the story one flight above the street level23, even as the expression 'the first floor' does on the continent of Europe to-day (in the United States we call this the second story). Luckhard, in suggesting an origin for such usage3, argued unconsciously from the modern custom of counting by 'floors'. The argument does not hold for ancient times, for then counting was done by

Originally, στέγη denoted the 'roof' of a house. It is easy enough to see how, in houses of more than one story, the word came to mean the 'roof' of any single

In the text, to save space in giving references to the papyri I use the accepted abbreviations of the titles of the various collections. The data about the collections mentioned in the notes are as follows: B. G. U. = Aegyptische Urkunden aus den Staatlichen Museen zu Berlin: Griechische Urkunden (7 volumes, by various editors, 1895-1026. In volumes 1-4 'Königlichen' appeared in the title instead of 'Staatlichen'): P. Cairo Zenon = Catalogue Genérale des Antiquités Egyptiennes du Musée du Caire: Zenon Papyri, by C<ampell> C<owan> Edgar, Volumes 1-4 (1925-1931); P. Lond. = Greek Papyri in the British Museum Catalogue, With Texts, Volumes 1-5 (1893-1917). Volumes 1-2 were edited by Prederic G. Kenyon, Volume 3 by Prederic G. Kenyon and H. Idris Bell, Volumes 3-5 by H. Idris Bell; P. Mon. = Byzantinische Papyri in der Königlichen Hof- und Staatsbilliothek zu München, edited by August Heisenberg and Leopold Wenger (Leipzig, Teubner, 1914); P. Mon. Inv. No. signifies the inventory number which was given to the papyrus when it was acquired: this number was used to designate it before its publication in P. Mon.

See note 7, below.

(Hermes 54 [1919], 431-432). See also Preisigke, Worterbuch der Griechischen Papyrusurkunden..., under στέγη. «For a review of this work, by Professor C. J. Kraemer, Jr., see The Classical Weekly 26.133-134. C. K.». Luckhard, too, offered the London papyrus as 'infallible proof' of this view (Fritz Luckhard, Das Privathaus im Ptolemáischen und Römischen Aegypten, 39-40 (this is a dissertation, published at Giessen, 1914, by the "Hof- und Universitätsdruckerei Otto Kindt"). The sole dissenter was Adolf Revers who considered the review of the Minish. Adolf Berger, who considered the τετάρτη στέγη ό the Munich papyrus as only three flights above the ground (Zeitschrift für Vergleichende Rechtswissenschaft 29 [1913], 326, note 18).

'37-38 (see note 2a, above).

Gaius 2.253, 4.39.

<sup>\*\*</sup>MGaius 4. 34 (as simplified and completed by Greenidge, 156 [see note 3, above]). This may be translated as follows: Let CD be index <1 prefix here the usual opening words of a formula>. If Aulus Agerius is the heir of Lucius Titius, then if it appears that Numerius Negidius ought to pay Aulus Agerius 10,000 sesterces, let the index condemn Numerius Negidius <10 pay> 10,000 sesterces, let the index condemn Numerius Negidius <10 pay> 10,000 sesterces to Aulus Agerius; if it does not <80> appear, <let the index acquit <Numerius Negidius>'. Compare Cicero, In Verrem 2. 2. 31 (I correct Cicero's parody, and add the usual final words of a formula): Let L. Octavius be index. If it appears that the Capena estate, concerning which action is being taken, belongs by the law of the Quirites to P. Servilius <100. Catulus', as in Cicero's burlesque formula: the sense is, 'if the estate is still held by the defendant'>, <let the defendant be condemned>...

\*\*PSee Cicero, Pro Caecina 10, 20, Pro Quinctio 8, 11, 33, 34, 71. Pro Tullio 6, 13-26, De Officius 3, 44, De Re Publica 1.59, Partitiones Oratoriae 104, Academica Priora 2, 146, De Finibus 2.36; Gaius 3, 180, 440-44; Aulus Gellius 14-26.

\*\*ISee Cicero, Pro Quinctio 25, 45, 48, 50, 60, 65, 73, 76, 79, 83, 88, 89, Pro Cluentio 165, In Verrem 2, 2, 109, 112, 116, 118, 126, Admillares 7, 21, Topica 18, De Legibus 1.17, De Finibus 2.74; Gaius 2.253, 4.39.

story, or, as we should say, a 'ceiling'. On this point all who have discussed the matter are agreed<sup>33</sup>. From meaning 'ceiling' στέγη came to denote a 'story of a house'. Naturally, then, since a ceiling bounds a room or a story on top, στέγη will denote the story below the ceiling in question, and ἡ πρώτη στέγη will mean the story below the first ceiling, i. e. the ground floor<sup>3</sup>.

We may note now that an olala morboreyor, being literally, 'a house with one roof', is a house one story high, i. e. a house with a ground floor only. An oisla δίστεγος, 'a house with two roofs', is, accordingly, a house two stories high, with, as we learn from P. Lond. 3.978 (page 233)1, a rowth and a sevrepa orthy. But, according to the interpretation accepted hitherto, this would mean two stories in addition to the ground floor; there would thus be three stories in all, not merely two. Such a contradiction does not arise if we call in Trooty orign the ground floor. Not even the advocates of the continental method of counting conceive of an olaia Siereyes as having two ceilings and a roof. Luckhards himself, in discussing the terms oldreyes and releveyes. equates the oisia δίστεγος of Egypt and the οίκίδιον διπλοῦν of Lysias 1.9. Lysias tells us distinctly that the οίκίδιον διπλούν had but one upper story.

In final proof of my view I present the evidence of the papyri themselves. P. Lond. 3.978, line 13 (page  $(233)^7$ , reads ével  $< = 4\pi i > \tau \eta i$   $\tau \rho \omega \tau \eta i$   $\sigma \tau \dot{\tau} \gamma \eta i$   $\delta \tau \dot{\tau} \dot{\tau} \dot{\tau} \dot{\tau} \dot{\tau} \dot{\tau}$ <= ἐπάνω> τοῦ πυλώνος ἀνδρεώνα. These words Preisigke and Luckhard take to mean an dropfur on the first floor, above the pylon', which is undoubtedly correct. But they go on to explain that this aropewr is on the same floor as the one whose location is given as έν τη ἀνωτέρω...στέγη (line 7), and that above this floor lies & bevrepa ortyn. Of the further occurrences of στέγη Luckhard found none which contradicted this explanation. But, since the publication of Luckhard's work, examples have appeared, especially in the papyri from Syene which are now in London and in Munich, which prove conclusively that in πρώτη στέγη was the ground floor. P. Lond. 5.1724 (page 173) has (lines 24-25) ἐν μὲν πρώτη στέγη κέλλιον ἐν ἐν τῷ πυλονι <= rvlan>100. The pylon here is certainly on the

ground, and, if a storeroom is in the pylon and on the first floor, then the first floor also is on the ground. The same papyrus continues (25-27) with the words, και το έπάνω αύτου συμπόσιον . . . Εν δευτέρα στέγη. which show that the story above the ground floor was called ή δευτέρα στέγη, not ή πρώτη στέγη<sup>11</sup>. P. Lond. 5.1722, 18-20 (page 170), έν μέν τη πρώτη στέγη κέλλια δύο' έν μέν . . . νεύον els βορρά<ν> els τον προσπαρακείμενον πυλονα <= πυλώνα>, άλλο δέ . . . νεύον είς λίβα είς  $\tau \delta < \nu > \pi \nu \lambda \hat{o} \nu \alpha < = \pi \nu \lambda \hat{\omega} \nu \alpha > \dots$  έν δέ τ $\hat{\eta}$  δευτέρα στέγη συμπόσια δύο, and P. Mon. 1.11.25-26, 1.12.20-21 άπὸ τοῦ κελλίου έν πρώτη στέγη νεύοντος 11a eis βορράν eis την δημοσίαν ρύμην, και άπο του έπάνω αυτού συμπόσιον έν δευτέρα στέγη, lead to the same conclusion, for a room cannot open on 'the pylon lying beside it' or on the public street unless the room is on the ground floor. A final bit of support for my view is lent by B. G. U. 3.1002 (55 B. C.). There, in lines 5-6, a duple the aparts orthing is named as the southern limit of a half of a courtyard which is being sold.

What, then, does επὶ τῆς πρώτης στέγης ἐπάνου τοῦ πυλώνος ἀνδρεῶνα in P. Lond. 3.978 mean? We know that the side towers of the Egyptian pylon soared high above the top of the doorway<sup>12</sup>. Thus considerable space remained between the top of the doorway and the ceiling of the ground floor. Rooms in this interspace were of frequent occurrence in Egypt from as far back as the New Empire<sup>13</sup>. The ἀνδρεων in question, being situated in this space, is both ἐπάνου τοῦ πυλώνος, 'above the pylon', and ἐπὶ τῆς πρώτης στέγης, 'on the first (ground) floor'.

NEW YORK, NEW YORK

NAPHTALI LEWIS

# A CONTRIBUTION TO BIOGRAPHICAL CHRONOLOGY

For chronological data in connection with the biographies of eminent Romans, and, in general, for the chronology of important historical facts we are often compelled to rely upon statements in ancient authors which record the age of an individual at a particular period or moment of his life. Frequently the only means of determining the year of birth of an individual are statements that specify the time of his death and his age at that time. Unfortunately, the Romans were no more meticulous or consistent than we are to-day in the use of expressions of age.

The Romans had available to them a variety of expressions to indicate age, and they made full use of these varying expressions. I give examples of the most frequent, arranged in two groups: A. Vixit decem annos (also annis in post-classical Latin), Excessit decem annos natus, Explevit (Implevit) decem annos; B. Periit anno aetatis undecimum, Obiit annum aetatis undecimum

\*Herodotus, in his description of the Labyrinth at Crocodilopolis (2.1,18.6) and in his account of Amasis's monolith (2.175.3), uses στέγη as = σίαημα. He easily reached this meaning since a room is, after all, as the Μέγα Λέξικον Τῆς Ελληνικῆς Γλώσσης defines it (under στέγη), τόπος κεκαλλυμένος διά στέγης. Athenaeus (3.3,8, ad finem = 205 D), after describing the lower level of Philopotor's river-boat, says, καὶ τὰ μὲν ἄχρι τῆς πρώτης στέγης κατασκευαρμένα τοιαθτ' ἢν.

\*70 (see note 2s, above).

This, like all but one of the papyri I shall mention or discuss, dates from the Byzantine period, when the sale or the rental of parts of houses, which made detailed specification of location and story necessary, had become almost as common, it would seem, as they are to day.

\*\*Story Recessity, and they are to-day.

\*\*Corrected by H. Idris Bell, from the previous reading, \*\*\*\textit{\textit{fhow}} \textit{\textit{how}} are to-day.

\*\*Corrected by H. Idris Bell, from the previous reading, \*\*\textit{\textit{fhow}} \textit{\textit{how}} \textit{\textit{how}} of the previous reading, \*\*\textit{\textit{fhow}} of the previous reading, \*\textit{\textit{fhow}} of the previous reading, \*\textit{fhow} of the previous r

\*Hermes 3.4 (1919), 4.32. 10.39 (see note 2a, above).

\*\*Ba The papyri themselves (and so, too, many volumes of published papyri, notably P. Lond: see note 1, above) omit all accents.

When accents are given in publications of papyri, the correct accent is given evan when the Greek word is misspelled in the papyrus itself.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>a For the discussions see note 2a, above.

<sup>4</sup>P. Cairo Zenon (see note 1, above) shows this meaning, heretofore known only from Byzantine times, as existing already in the third century B. C.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Compare also, here and in the two following examples, Luckhard's statement (7,3: see note 2a, above) that the συμπόσιον was usually located in the upper story. He is followed in this by Wilhelm Schubart, Einführung in die Papyruskunde, 4,38.

"a So P. Mon. 1.11 reads, correctly. In P. Mon. 1.12 by a care-

less slip Prilov appears.

<sup>13</sup>Warren E. Dawson, Egyptian Art, 105 (London, G. Allen and Unwin, 1923. This is a translation of Jean Capart, Leçons sur l'Art Egyptien [Liege, Imprimerie H. Vaillant-Carmine, 1920]).

<sup>13</sup>Luckhard, 67 (see note 2a, above).

agens (gerens)1. A Roman might select any one of these expressions to commemorate a given event. The former group requires, logically, a statement of the number of years completed at the last birthday, the latter a statement of the particular year of life upon which the individual had entered at the time of the event recorded.

It is natural to expect, and my observations below will demonstrate, that the Romans, through carelessness, often failed to make a clean-cut distinction between the two groups of expressions; they sometimes used an expression in Group A when an exact statement of the time of life which they had computed and were seeking to convey to the reader or hearer demanded, logically, one of the expressions belonging to Group B, and vice versa. Likewise, different readers or hearers probably interpreted a given expression in different ways. The psychology of such carelessness is obvious, and needs no lengthy explanation. An individual's habit of recording age in memory or on paper in a characteristic manner, i. e. by expressions belonging either to Group A or to Group B, rendered it difficult for him to make the change in number necessary when he desired to convey the same idea through the medium of an expression in the less preferred group. There was thus a resultant tendency to interpret carelessly statements of age read or heard.

Only persons specially-one might say professionally-trained, e. g. writers of obituary notices, to differentiate sharply between the number of years completed at the last birthday (e. g. 85) and the number of the year of life (e.g. 86th) are studiously careful always to avoid such negligence. The practice usual to-day among lavmen of designating age by the number of years of life completed at the last birthday often causes carelessness of expression in statements which require logically a number higher by one than the number of years of life completed, and, conversely, carelessness in the interpretation of such statements2.

The Romans had the same difficulties and fell into the same carelessness. A Roman author who had accustomed himself to record age by expressions in Group A was sometimes, if he was not careful, guilty of an error, if he used, for the sake of variety, the same number in an expression in Group B. Similarly, his lack of precision in expression sometimes caused him to misinterpret statements in other authors. Occasionally, however, a more careful writer, working with sources before him, altered the number if he desired to alter the expression which appeared in his source. But what if his source contained a careless expression of age? The alteration of the number and the expression then produced in the age recorded by the borrower an increase or a decrease of one year in the age which the source had intended to convey.

A number of examples from Latin authors will show how careless the Romans were, and how we may fall into error if we interpret them uncritically.

nius's Lives are particularly valuable as illustrative material in this connection because he often records, in addition to the age at the time of death, the exact date of birth and of death, so that we can check his statements of age. Suetonius prefers for such statements expressions in Group B, that is, he usually states the year of life upon which, at the time of the event recorded, the person had entered, but he is not consistent in his usage.

He records the age of Vespasian at the time of his death thust: . . extinctus est VIIII, Kal. Iul. annum agens aetatis sexagensimum ac nonum superque mensem ac diem septimum. The date of his birth, as Suetonius states, was November 17, 9 A. D., and the date of his death, as above recorded, was June 24, 796. Accordingly, Vespasian lived sixty-nine years, seven months, and seven days7. Suetonius should, therefore, have used an expression in Group A, i. e. he should have said that Vespasian died sexaginta ac novem superque menses ac dies septem natus, or the like; by using an expression that belongs in Group B he has made a careless statement open to misinterpretation<sup>8</sup>.

Similar slipshod writing occurs in Suetonius's statement of Augustus's age at the time of his death: Obiit...septuagesimo et sexto aetatis anno, diebus V et XXX minus9. Suetonius means that Augustus all but completed seventy-six full years of life. A more exact expression would have been: Obiit ... septuaginta et sex annos natus, diebus V et XXX minus10.

There is perhaps one case in Suetonius of the use of an expression in Group A when an expression in Group B is logically required. He says that Caligula Vixit annis viginti novem, imperavit triennio et decem

"Julius 88 Periit sexto et quinquagesimo aetatis anno...;
101.2...amisit...sororem Octaviam quinquagesimum et quartum
agens aetatis annum; 100.1 Obiit...septuagesimum et quartum
agens aetatis annum; 100.1 Obiit...septuagesimo et sexto aetatis
anno, diebus V et XXX minus; Tiberius 73.1...obiit...octavo et
septuagesimo aetatis anno, tertio et vicesimo imperii...; Claudius
10.1...quinquagesimo anno imperium cepit...; Claudius 43 septuagesimo aetatis anno, tertio et vicesimo imperii...; Claudius 10.1...quinquagesimo anno imperium cepit...; Claudius 43 Excessit...sexagesimo quarto aetatis, imperii quarto decimo anno...; Nero 7.1 Undecimo aetatis anno a Claudio adoptatus est...; Nero 57 Obiit tricensimo et secundo aetatis anno. (Galba 23 Periit tertio et septuagesimo aetatis anno, imperii mense septimo; Otho 11.2...exanimatus est...tricensimo et octavo aetatis anno...; Vitellius 18 Periit...anno vitae septimo quinquagesimo; Vespasianus 24 (see above in the text); Titus 11 Excessit...altero et quadragesimo aetatis anno; Domitianus 17.3 Occisus est...anno etatis quadragensimo quinto, imperii quinto decimo.

quadragesimo aetatis anno; Domitianus 17.3 Occisus est. ... anno aetatis quadragensimo quinto, imperii quinto decimo.

'Vespasianus 2.1.

'Vespasianus 2.1.

Vespasianus natus est. ... XV Kal. Decb. ... Q. Sulpicio Camerino C. Poppaeo Sabino Cons. ...

'Ludwig Holzapfel, Klio 17 (1921), 74-81, would 'correct' this date to June 24. Compare Harriet M. T. Skerrett, C. Suetonii Tranquilli De Vita Caesarum Libri VIII, Divus Vespasianus, 119, note b (a University of Pennsylvania dissertation, privately printed at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, 1924).

'J. C. Rolfe, Suetonius (The Loeb Classical Library), translates incorrectly by "sixty-nine years, one month and seven days".

'There can be no question of error in calculation here. It is important, however, in all cases, to distinguish, if possible, between actual errors in chronology and slipshod writing. This is not the place to go into certain obvious and much-discussed errors in calculation in Suetonius, e. g. Nero 7.1, 57.1; Calba 23; Otho 11.2; Vitellius 18; Titus 11. Miss Skerrett (see note 6, above) appears to charge Suetonius with carelessness in recording Vespasiani's age (her meaning is, however, not clear). George W. Mooney, C. Suetonii Tranquilli De Vita Caesarum Libri VIII-VIII, 463 (London, Longmans, Green and Co., 1930), says of the expression, "... a very careless expression, though the meaning is clear only if one has taken the trouble to calculate the length of Vespasian's life from the dates given by Suetonius. Dio Cassius states, more correctly, but less explicitly (66.17.3), Your be length of Vespasian's life from the dates given by Suetonius. Dio Cassius states, more correctly, but less explicitly (66.17.3), Your be length of Vespasian's life from the dates given by Suetonius. Dio Cassius states, more correctly, but less explicitly (6a.17.3), Your be length of Vespasian's life from the dates given by Suetonius Profession, Pagustus 100.1.

"Augustus 100.1.

"Suetonius probably made a similar slip in recording the duration of Galba's reign (Galba 23): Periit. . imperii mense septimo. Galba was in power for more than seven full months. Compare W. Liebenam, Fasti Consulares Imperii Romani. 103 (Bonn, Marcus and Weber, 1909).

<sup>\*\*</sup>Instances of both types of expression will appear below, in the text, and in the notes.

See e. g. Aegyptus 12 (1932), 405, where tribute is paid to Professor Ulrich Wilcken, who recently completed seventy years of life, and page 402, where there is an announcement of "Onoranze a Guglielmo Wilcken nel suo LXX anno".

mensibus diebusque octo<sup>11</sup>. Suetonius records the significant dates in Caligula's life as follows: birth, August 31, 12 A. D.13; accession to power, March 16, 3713; death, January 24, 4114. Accordingly, Caligula lived twenty-eight full years, and was in power three years, ten months, and eight days15.

No less a historian than Tacitus is guilty of carelessness in expressions of age. He says16 of the destruction of Cremona, on October 31, 69 A. D.17, Hic exitus Cremonae anno ducentesimo octogesimo sexto a primordio sui. Condita erat Ti. Sempronio et Cornelio consulibus... (= 218 B. C.). Tacitus meant to convey the thought that Cremona existed for two hundred and eighty-six years. For a more striking instance of carelessness in Tacitus see the next paragraph of the text. Velleius Paterculus too sometimes failed to distinguish carefully between expressions of age. He says of Pompey18, Sub adventum in Italiam L. Sullae, Cn. Pompeius...XXIII annos natus...contraxit exercitum. Pompey was born on September 29, 106 B. C.19; he collected an army for Sulla in the spring of 83 B. C.20 He was, therefore, at that time in the twenty-third year of his life, but not yet twenty-three years old. Velleius makes a similar slip in stating Octavius's age at the time of Caesar's Spanish campaign<sup>21</sup>: quem <= Octavius> C. Caesar...dilexit ut suum, natumque annos XVIII Hispaniensis militiae assecutum se postea comitem habuit.... It is well known that Octavius was born on September 23, 63 B. C. He was with Caesar in Spain in the spring of 45 B. C.23 Accordingly, he was at that time in his eighteenth year, but he was not yet eighteen years old24. There are cases in Valerius Maximus of similar negligence. He says (9.3.8) that Sulla died sexagesimum ingrediens annum26; Appian says, more carefully, έξήκοντα έτη βιώσας<sup>58</sup>.

A very striking example of carelessness in the use of sources is seen by comparing with Augustus's statement in the opening section of the Res Gestae (Monu-

mentum Ancyranum), Annos undeviginti natus exercitum privato consilio et privata impensa comparavi. per quem rem publicam a dominatione factionis in libertatem vindicavi27, the words of Velleius Paterculus28, . . . cum Caesar XVIIII annum ingressus, mira ausus ac summa consecutus, privato consilio...veteranos excivit paternos. . . , and Tacitus's statement29, . . . cum octavo decimo aetatis anno Cn. Pompeius, nono decimo Caesar Octavianus civilia bella sustinuerint I have no doubt that Velleius and Tacitus saw and used as source material the copy of the Res Gestae before the Mausoleum of Augustus in Rome. The carelessness of Tacitus and Velleius is obvious<sup>30</sup>. We may have here an explanation of cases in which Octavius is said by later authors to have been eighteen years old at the time<sup>11</sup>. Later authors, relying upon careless statements such as those in Velleius and Tacitus, may have altered aetatis anno...nono decimo to its close equivalent annos X et VIII natus. The emphasis upon the extreme youth of Octavian tended to make easy the reduction of the numeral, just as the extreme age of Gorgias operated in the opposite direction 32.

Negligence such as has been observed in Tacitus, the greatest of the Roman historians, is carried to extremes by a less careful worker like Eutropius. I have selected Eutropius as an example advisedly, because it can be shown that he used Suetonius's Lives as one of his sources<sup>33</sup>. Compare Eutropius 7.12.4...interfectus <Caligula > . . . est anno aetatis vicesimo nono, imperii tertio, mense decimo dieque octavo, with Suetonius, Gaius 59 Vixit annis viginti novem, imperavit triennio et decem mensibus diebusque octo<sup>31</sup>; Eutropius 7.13.5 Is <= Claudius> vixit annis IV et LX, imperavit XIV, with Suetonius, Claudius 45 Excessit ... sexagesimo quarto aetatis, imperii quarto decimo anno . . . . 35

ment in the opening section of the Res Gestae (Monu
"Gaius 59. "Gaius 8.1. "Suetonius, Tiberius 73.1. "Gaius 58.

"There may, however, be an error by Suetonius in calculation here, because he gives the duration of Caligula's reign correctly. I am not at all sure that Suetonius took the trouble to calculate ages and durations of reigns, even though he gives precise dates. It was easier for him to follow his sources. Another piece of careless writing is in Domitianus 17.3 Occisus est XIIII. Kal. Octb. < = September 18, 96 A. D.> anno aetatis quadragensimo quinto, imperii quinto decimo. Suetonius informs us (Domitianus 1.1) that Domitian was born on October 24, 51 A. D. (compare Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum 10.444.13-15 IX K. Novembr. natal. Domitiani Aug. N.), and implies (Titus 11) that he succeeded his brother Titus on September 13, 81 A. D. Accordingly, when Domitian died in the forty-fifth year of his life, he had completed fifteen years of rule.

"Historiae 3,34."

"Ompare B. W. Henderson, Civil War and Rebellion in the Roman Empire A. D. 69–70 (London, Macmillan, 1908). "2.29.1."

"W. Drumann, Geschichte Roms in Seinem Uebergange von der Republikanischen zur Monarchischen Verfassung, Zweite Auflage, Herausgegeben von P. Groebe, 4.332 (Leipzig, Borntraeger, 1908).

"See Fröhlich's article Sulla, in Pauly-Wissowa-Kroll, Real-Encyclopädie, 4.1544–1547.
"Suetonius, Augustus 5; Dio Cassius 56.30.5; Aulus Gellius 15.7.3; Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum 12, page 329.

"Compare Clayton M. Hall, Nicolaus of Damascus' Life of Augustus, 79, note 1 to section 11 of the text (a Johns Hopkins University dissertation, 1923, published also in the Smith College Classical Studies, Number IV, Northampton, Massachusetts, 1923).

"Compare P. Groebe, Hermes 42 (1907), the "Tafel" following page 308.

"Ibidem. Por a similar slip by Valerius Maximus compare 8.7, augustus industriae...ad

"Compare P. Groebe, Hermes 42 (1907), the "Tatel following page 308.

"Ibidem. Por a similar slip by Valerius Maximus compare 8.7, Ext. 11 Te quoque, Cleanthe, ...numen ipsius industriae. ..ad undecentesimum annum...videret, with Censorinus, De Die Natali 15.3. Cleanthes, qui uno minus centum explevit.

"B. C. 1.105.402, which I cite from the edition of Ludwig Mendelssohn, Appiani Historia Romana, Editio Altera, by Paul Viereck (Leipzig, Teubner, 1905).

<sup>27</sup>Augustus is referring to the civil war late in 44 B. C. and early in 43 B. C., after his nineteenth birthday. Compare T. Rice Holmes, The Architect of the Roman Empire, 28-68 (Oxford: At the Clarendon Press, 1928).

<sup>28</sup>Compare Theodor Mommsen, Res Gestae Divi Augusti; 3 (Berlin, Weidmann, 1883); Concetta Barini, Monumentum Ancyranum, 71 (Rome, 1939). I do not follow Hardy (E. G. Hardy, The Monumentum Ancyranum [Oxford: At the Clarendon Press, 1923]), who says (26) that Velleius's statement "...makes him a year too young."

<sup>38</sup>Compare Eutropius 7.1 annos X et VIII natus; Florus 4.4 intra XVIII annos.

XVIII annos.

2In some ancient sources Gorgias is said to have lived 108 years (compare Pliny, Historia Naturalis 7.156; Philostratus, Vitae Sophistarum 1.9; Lucian, Macrobioi 23; Censorinus, De Die Natali 15.3), in others 109 years (compare Quintilian 3.1.0; Suidas, under l'opyids; Apollodorus, in Diogenes Laertius 8.58). See Felix Jacoby, Apollodor's Chronik, 261 (Berlin, Weidmann, 1902); E. Wellmann's article Gorgias, in Pauly-Wissowa-Kroll, Real-Encyclopadie 7.1508.

Wellmann's article Gorgias, in Pauly-Wissowa-Kroll, Real-Encyclopadie, 7.1508.

"See Paul Ebeling, Quaestiones Eutropianae, 12-28 (Halle, 1881. This is a dissertation).

"Compare Ludwig Holzapfel, Klio 17 (1921), 78, note 5. By altering Suetonius's expression Eutropius has inadvertently rectified Suetonius's error in the age of Caligula (see the text above, in connection with note 15), but at the same time he has wrongly stated the duration of Caligula's reign.

"In other cases in which Eutropius is apparently incorrect the fault lies with his source, not with his own carelessness. Compare c. g. 7.15.3 Obiit (Nero) tricesimo et altero aetatis anno..., with Suetonius, Nero 57.1 Obiit tricensimo et secundo aetatis anno..., in 7.16.3... occisus est (Galba> imperii mense septimo, with Suetonius, Galba 23 Periit... imperii mense septimo; 7.17.3... obiit 7.10.3. occisis est < Gaida > imperii mense septimo; with Suctonius, Galba 23 Periit. imperii mense septimo; 7.17.3. obiit < Otho> tricesimo et octavo actatis anno..., with Suctonius, Otho 11.2. exanimatus est. tricensimo et octavo actatis anno...; 7.20.2. extinctus est < Vespasianus>...annum agens actatis sexagesimum ac nonum..., with Suctonius, Vespasianus 24 (see the text above, in connection with note 7). Ludwig Holzapfel, tisee the text above, in connection with note 7). Lindwig riorsapies, Klio 12 (1912), 489, note 6, 15 (1918), 104, note 6, 17 (1921), 78, note 5, unjustly accuses Eutropius of negligence in these cases. Even modern scholars are careless in using ancient sources. Weynand, in Pauly-Wissowa-Kroll, Real-Encyclopadie, 6.2674, says that Vespasian died "im 69. Lebensjahr". Vespasian lived full 69

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Finally, compare Suetonius, Augustus 8.1 Duo-decimum annum agens aviam Iuliam defunctam pro contione laudavit, with Quintilian 12.6.1 Caesar Augustus duodecim natus annos aviam pro rostris laudaverit.... Quintilian's usage in expressions of age cannot be tested, because of insufficiency of examples; Suetonius has been tested and found inconsistent and careless. Lacking other confirmatory evidence, we must confess that we do not know whether Octavius had reached the twelfth anniversary of his birth or was still in the twelfth year of his life at the time his grandmother Iulia died. 26.

The importance of the foregoing discussion lies in the wider application of the principle induced. We cannot be certain of the exact interpretation of any statement of age in any Latin author until we have demonstrated that the particular author involved is consistently careful in his usage.

NEW YORK, NEW YORK

MEYER REINHOLD

#### REVIEW

The Poems of Catullus, Arranged and Edited by W. B. McDaniel, 2<sup>d</sup>. New York: Oxford University Press (1931). Pp. xx + 195. \$1.75.

There are two important points of difference between Mr. McDaniel's edition of Catullus and other School or College editions of that poet. In the first place, Mr. McDaniel includes all the poems, preferring that the teacher should make his own selection. One may doubt the wisdom of this decision, for, whatever the teacher's choice may be, the interested student who has the complete text before him may be expected to go beyond it for himself, and, without expressing any opinion on the question of 'bowdlerising' on 'moral' grounds, one may urge that most of the trivial pieces which are generally omitted are unworthy of Catullus. The usual selections do in fact include all on which his claim to be a great poet rests: so far as the other pieces are concerned, he is not a poet at all. In the second place, Mr. McDaniel has arranged the poems in a chronological order, believing that, though the arrangement adopted by him can claim no certainty, it will help the reader to a better understanding of the relation between the poet's work and his life. For this point of view there is much justification. Against Mr. McDaniel's tentative chronological scheme there is nothing to be said.

The matter in the introductory pages (xi-xx), under the caption A Note on Catullus and his Times, is slight but adequate. Some readers may be annoyed by artificial twists of phrase like that which describes Julius Caesar as "that Vergilian descendant of Venus..." (xii). Two criticisms of detail may be made. Not enough emphasis is laid on the northern connections of

\*Nicolaus of Damascus, Bíos Kaiσapes 3, says that he was about nine years old at the time. Carolus Muller, Fragmenta Historicorum Graecorum, 3.428, note (Paris, 1849), has suggested the emendation of περὶ ἐννέα to περὶ ἔνδεκα, in order to reconcile the statements. Fitzler-Seeck, in the article Julius (Augustus) in Pauly-Wissowa-Kroll, Real-Encylcopadie, 10.278, offer the suggestion that two separate occasions are meant, the first in September, 34 B. C., when Caesar's daughter Julia died, the second when Caesar's sister Julia, Octavius's grandmother, died. Compare Hall (see note 23, above), 77, note 1 to section 3 of the text.

Catullus and several members of his circle, including the scholar Valerius Cato. Further, it is hard to see the grounds for the statement (xvi) that "The New Poets were among those to frequent the court of Clodia..."; they may have been, but there is not a scrap of evidence connecting any of the neolerici except Catullus himself with Clodia.

Mr. McDaniel intends (Preface, viii) his edition for "the intelligent undergraduate, who need not necessarily be a specialist in classical studies..." He has therefore cut down his notes to the minimum with the object of keeping them readable for the student. The Introductions to the poems are interestingly written, if they are sometimes a trifle naïve, but some of their superfluities might profitably have been cut down to allow some expansion of the commentary. It is difficult to see in "Catullus' Epyllion, The Marriage of Peleus and Thetis" (64: 1171) a "wealth of allusions to others of Catullus' own poems. . . "which Mr. McDaniel (169) describes as "Probably the most striking characteristic of this poem..." Drawing attention to the resemblance between cita...puppi (64.6: 117.6) there and celeri rate in the Attis (63.1: 62.1) is simply wasting space. Again, there is no reason for comparing salaputium (53.5: 73.5) with "... Swift's coinage, Lilliputian". Some of the notes are put in the form of questions, and these are often suggestive and draw attention to some of the finer points of style and phrasing. But too many are of the 'label'-type, which is the bane of the School edition, and many others suffer from over-compression and from an unfortunate looseness of expression. Thus on 31.1 (64.1) we are told that paene is used adjectivally, on 4.10 (65.10) that the construction of antea (which is perfectly normal) is a Greeism. The note on 17.20 (1.20), "nulla: the puella" is, as it stands, meaningless. In 62.8 (4.8) the idiom involved in viden ut is not clearly explained, and the remark on 62.45 (4.45) that "The second dum clause comes in thought out of the first" throws little light on a much-discussed verse. On 22.9 (10.9) legas is described as "subjunctive (with cum) of repeated action", as if that were a normal construction in Republican Latin. In 2.7 (15.7) solaciolum, however it is to be explained, cannot be "in apposition with libet nescio quid jocari". In 66.51 (39.51) it is at least doubtful, in view of the recently recovered Greek, whether abiunctae qualifies comae. Among the difficult points of grammar or interpretation which are not mentioned at all are 4.2 (65.2) ait fuisse, 12.8-9 (27.8-9) leporum disertus puer, 64.325 (117.325) tutamen opis, 68 b. 45 (40.45) abisse, 101.3 (61.3) donarem.

More unfortunate than the omissions in the notes are the positive mistakes, which should be removed in a revision of the book. In the note on 21.1 (80.1) the ghost-word esuritiorum (apparently for esurientium) may possibly be due to the printers: but the surprising remark on 3.11 (21.11) which explains tenebricosum as "a beautiful word which is a variation of the more usual tenebricum" (which in fact is very rare) must be as-

<sup>&</sup>lt;¹Here and in like instances below, and in such citations as "17.20 (1.29)" the first group of figures is according to the usual numbering of the poems, the second according to the number in Mr. McDaniel's book. C. K.>.

cribed to the editor. The note on 68 b. 78 (40.78), "qui: se. barathrum...", suggests (I hope I may be wrong) that Mr. McDaniel has mistaken a gender. On 39.11 (30.11) parcus Umber, we are told that "Umbrian poverty was proverbial": but in fact elsewhere the Umbrians are proverbial for luxury. On 21.13 (80.13) the note "irrumatus: sc. sis" ignores a familiar idiom noted by Ellis here and by Mayor on Juvenal 5.147. On 65.6 (38.6) Lethe, which was not, pace Mr. McDaniel, "crossed by boat", seems to be confused with Styx. In 64.301 (117.301) Idri cannot possibly be a Latin genitive of Idrias, as it is here alleged to be; it may be a genitive of Idrieus, the name of the eponymous founder of Idrias. In 29.20 (99.20) Schwabe's conjecture nunc Galliae timetur et Britanniae is printed in the text: but neither Schwabe nor anyone else before Mr. McDaniel thought of taking Galliae and Britanniae as genitives governed by such a phrase as ab incolis understood.

The summary account of the meters of Catullus (182–186) is in the main correct, but it is not complete. The meaning of the term scazon is not explained (183–184), and the reader is left to detect for himself the difference between the scazon and the pure iambic line (which is mentioned two pages later, 186). The treatment of the galliambic (185) meter is hardly adequate, for anaclasis, which alone can bridge the gulf between an Ionic line and Catullus's galliambic, is not mentioned, and 63.54 (62.54), which has incurred general suspicion because it has no anaclasis, is quoted as a normal example of the galliambic verse. If meters are to be presented at all to the College student, they should be fully and rationally explained.

It is a pity that Mr. McDaniel has let so many errors of omission and commission slip into his work, for it has the makings of a useful book.

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